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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore several urban field sites where youth programs are achieving some notoriety and to identify some factors contributing to success. A survey of literature on program development for urban areas was also included. It was hoped that such a search would reveal composites of common elements which would be helpful to professionals who are planning informal educational programs for urban areas. Several points to be considered for a successful urban youth program were: (1) to involve the community, (2) to be responsive to differences of attitude and culture of the participants, (3) to train volunteers, (4) to develop resources, and (5) to show changes in the lives of participants. The author points to many questions left unanswered by the study and suggests further research. (Author/PC)

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An Exploratory Survey of Selected Literature, Selected 4-H Programs and Other Selected Youth-Serving Agencies: Contributions to Educational Programs for Urban Youth

Susan E. Perkins

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The Pennsylvania State University
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The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology

An Exploratory Survey of Selected Literature, Selected 4-H Programs, and Other Selected Youth Serving Agencies: Contributions to Educational Programs for Urban Youth

A Professional Paper in

Extension Education

by

Susan Elizabeth Perkins

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Master of Education

August 1974

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

During the 1960's, concern for poverty in America was a politically popular cause. The Kennedy and Johnson administrations were instrumental in the conceptualization and implementation of many programs established to alleviate the pangs of poverty in this country. The Model Cities Program and the Office of Economic Opportunity are two of the largest and richest programs that come to mind from this decade. Following the civil uprisings in New York, Watts, Detroit, and Chicago, there was an increasing awareness of growing urban unrest and racial tension in metropolitan areas in general. It was this general ferment that prompted such influential authors as Michael Harrington in The Other America (1962) and John K. Galbraith, The Affluent Society (1958), to emphasize the increasing affluence of a portion of American society vis-a-vis a hidden segment of the nation's society which was starving to death. The societal realization of hunger in the midst of plenty brought much public support for the governmental programs focusing on elimination of the antecedents of poverty in our lifetime. It is one of these antecedents, specifically educational programming for urban youth, that forms the backdrop for this paper.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study, specifically, is to explore several urban field sites where youth programs are achieving some notoriety

and to identify some factors contributing to success. A survey of the literature on program development for urban areas will be conducted also. It is hoped that such a search will reveal a composite of common elements which will be helpful to professionals who are planning informal, educational programs for urban areas. Conversely, some pitfalls to be avoided may be surfaced during the conduct of the study. The latter being considered by the author as equally important as the former in the ultimate formulation of informal, educational programs.

Background of the Problem

The Depression and World War II were two international events that changed the course of American history. One major effect of both incidences was the rapid growth of the urban population in America. The growth of cities and the industrial opportunities opening up there have been the trend since the 1920's. The American Depression of the 1930's also intensified the rural to urban migration with a resultant decline in the rural population. Statistics from the Census of Population show a rapid rise in population around urban centers during and after World War II. As Philip Hauser, Professor of Sociology and Director of the Population Research Center at the University of Chicago, has stated, in Moynihan's book,

> Migration, in the United States, as elsewhere, represents mainly a movement of population from places of lesser economic opportunity to places of greater opportunity. Moreover, in the United States, as elsewhere, migrants have often been ill-prepared in their areas of destination. In consequence, the problems of adjustment of in-migrants to urban and metropolitan areas are often difficult as they seek to accomodate to their new setting. Furthermore, the problems of adjustment are compounded when complicated by differences of language, culture, religion, ethnicity, or race (Moynihan, 1970:30).

Most of the urban areas' new growth has been generated by migrants from the Southern rural and the less-developed parts of the country; primarily the Appalachian white or "Oakie" and the Negro.[1] In addition to having generally insufficient economic resources, these persons tend to be undereducated and underskilled for competition in the urban labor market. It is this combination of social and economic handicaps, persisting from generation to generation, that has created what some sociologists and economists have come to call the "culture of poverty." Moreover, a part of the urban poverty culture has resulted from a northern movement of Puerto Ricans to particularly New York and Philadelphia as economic conditions seem more promising there than in San Juan. When Congress limited the quotas of immigrants, the result was to further aggravate the rural to urban migration from the areas just mentioned.

This urban growth exploded too rapidly to be anticipated and well planned. Certain factors facilitated while others inhibited the flow of migration. With such counterforces influencing metropolitan expansion, growth was, quite logically, uneven and thereby unequal in terms of subsequent long-range opportunities. In this light, Moynihan discusses the consequences of rapid population growth in those urban areas where highways and factories combined to provide attractive employment opportunities. He states:

> The essentials of the present urban crisis are simple enough to relate. Until about World War II the growth of the city, as Otto Eckstein argues, was 'a logical, economic development.' At least it was such in the northeastern quadrant of the United States, where most urban troubles are supposed to exist. The political jurisdiction of the city more or less defined the area of intensive economic development which more or less defined the area of intensive settlement. Thereafter economic incentives

> and social desires combined to produce a fractionating process which made it ever more difficult to collect enough power in any one place to provide the rudiments of effective government. As a result of or as a part of this process, the central area ceased to grow and began to decline. The core began to rot (Moynihan, 1970:7).

Background of the Study

The situation today is one of educating youth for tomorrow's life styles. The importance of successful educational experiences and learning opportunities for urban youth is underlined by the fact that these young people are the adults of tomorrow - the peaceful community leaders of the urban neighborhood or the radical instigators of the ghetto riot.

This study is concerned with the educational programs available to the urban youth of the 1970's, recognizing the effectual relationship between education *per se* and family relationships and employment opportunities.

Educational institutions are searching for the most effective methods in this regard. Informal approaches to education may have an advantage in their flexibility; change and innovation can be implemented without total renovation of the ongoing system. The "canned programs" do not work any more. New methods, creative approaches, dynamic personnel and leaders must be sought. One educational institution searching for the most responsive combination of these elements is the Cooperative Extension Service.[2]

The Cooperative Extension Service and other youth serving agencies are committed to providing positive learning experiences for the youth of American metropolitan areas. In the case of the Cooperative Extension Service, a Congressional mandate, complete with

supportive legislation, made it possible for Extension to expand its normal educational programming for such clientele. Thus Extension and its personnel have a legal commitment as well as professional and personal commitments to work with urban youth. The manner and purposefulness with which this commitment is being carried out in selected Northeastern cities brings another focus to this paper. Let us examine the Cooperative Extension Service in somewhat more detail.

The Cooperative Extension Service

The Cooperative Extension Service was mandated to provide educational programs for urban youth in order to ameliorate the inequities of life styles which are credited with spawning the urban problems. The original Smith-Lever Act has been amended several times, most recently in 1962 when changes were made in the formula for appropriations. Concomitantly its original purpose of diffusion of substantive knowledge to rural farm families has broadened considerably. Thus the Cooperative Extension Service did not enter the urban arena without prior experience in educational programming. It would be helpful at this point to review the progress of Extension programming in order to highlight this point.

The land grant colleges designated by the federal Morrill Acts of 1862, and 1890, are the home institutions for the Cooperative Extension Service in each state. The Extension Service primarily was intended to disseminate information from the research stations on campus to rural farm clientele via an elaborate county-based communications network. The emergency state of affairs on the home front during the two world wars and the responsibility for handling the administration of

assistance programs to agricultural communities during the Depression drew the Extension Service into the arena of community action. This latter function assigned to Extension was discontinued in 1936. As a result of this effort, the Extension Service was well established in the community with

> the basic personnel more adequately trained than in any previous period of national emergency. [During World War II] Congress appropriated funds to Extension for an extensive farm labor program, which Extension conducted with economy and efficiency. Extension's greatest contribution to this war effort lay in its intensive educational programs of assisting farmers and homemakers in meeting greatly increased production goals with less-than-normal supplies of labor and materials (Sanders, 1966, pp. 23-24).

The victory garden program, begun during World War II through community based efforts and support from the school systems, continued in many urban areas (see Brown and Boyle, 1964).

Although adult education represented the primary educational thrust, youth work has been an integral part of Extension since its earliest days. Educating America's farm youth in applying the knowledge of school education to practical, real-life situations of canning; sewing; raising crops, poultry, pigs, or calves was the primary purpose of 4-H programs. A convincing advantage was the improvement in knowledge of farm practices passed from the youth to their parents (Sanders, 1966).

When the population shift drew the farm families off the land and into the cities, some changes in the Extension Service were inevitable. A task force report in 1968 emphasized the transitions Extension has gone through to remain current with the needs of its ever-broadening audience base. A People and A Spirit recommends

> that the priority groups for greatly increased attention in Extension's quality for living programs be the disadvantaged youth and adults in rural slums and urban ghettos, potential school dropouts, young families, and unemployed out-of-school young adults....The Committee recommends that Cooperative Extension Service maintain the 4-H program as a youth development activity for youngsters from all walks of life and all economic levels. The program should become neither a poverty program nor a strictly middle-class activity (A People and A Spirit, 1968, pp. 63; 66).

Furthermore, federal funding to Extension has caused a broad-based expansion of educational programming. In 1968, for example, 200 million dollars were appropriated to the Federal Extension Service for an Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP). EFNEP was designed to educate low income homemakers in improved practices of food buying, food preparation, and meal planning. It coincided with, and was an outgrowth of the public concern for improving the conditions of the people in poverty. In 1972, funding was provided Extension and earmarked for urban youth work. Although this funding stimulated the most intensive effort Extension has made in the urban areas, Brown and Boyle (1964) have shown that Extension has been servicing some metropolitan centers since World War I. The Brown and Boyle (1964) statistics indicate, however, that enrollment has been limited and retention of youth, especially teens, has been generally poor. Retention of older youth is still lacking. In this regard, a study of Pennsylvania teens by Gottlieb and Lewis (1974, p. 78) concluded, among other things, that "the loss of older youth stems primarily from a failure on the part of 4-H to provide these youth with activities of substance and meaning." Thus the need for meaningful 4-H educational programs for older urban youth has not lessened in the last decade.

Awareness of need is necessary but not sufficient to resolve the

problem. The problem can only be resolved when Extension personnel are cognizant of and implement a meaningful program. In this regard, Roy Sorenson, of the National YMCA, noted in a presentation before the National Conference on Problems of Rural Youth in a Changing Environment, 1963, that "two basic elements of the 4-H movement have provided a dynamic [learning experience for rural youth] which has never been equalled in urban programming. First the projects are central in the program and are real tasks indigenous to rural life ...The other element is that the tasks have status in the eyes of youth and adult." Sorenson (1963) also makes the point that 4-H is meaningful in the city because its organization and reputation are familiar to the newly migrated "farm youth." It is doubtful that these farm youth constitute a large percentage of urban youth as a whole, but these young people and the adults who have migrated from country homes for city jobs are a potential audience great enough to merit the concern of urban youth programmers.

From the perspective of the urban youth at least three components of a meaningful educational program have been highlighted. Reality of the program, the status of the program, and the reputation of the organization offering the program all influence participation. Identification of the necessary components for a successful and accepted urban program is the dilemma to be dealt with in this study.

Thus, within the parameters of this study, we will be examining various aspects of youth programs, in general and specifically, for substantive logicality, consistency and meaningfulness. Hopefully, such substance will become apparent through discernible patternings from the data examined.

Theoretical Considerations

The country is becoming ever more urbanized as the megapolis of the eastern coast stretches from northeastern Massachusetts through Rhode Island, Connecticut, and along the seaboard and the great bays of New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Northeast Virginia. Other megalopoleis extend from San Jose through the San Francisco Bay Area to Richmond and Marin County; from San Diego through Los Angeles to Bakersfield; from Milwaukee through Chicago, Gary, South Bend, across southern Michigan to Detroit, Toledo, Cleveland, and over to Pittsburgh; and there is one in the making from Houston to Dallas-Fort Worth (Havighurst, 1966:47-48). Education, as our most accessible and public institution, must adapt to the new demands of this change; public schools, as the socializing agent and the equalizer of opportunity, must become flexible and responsive to the individual needs of the students. With rapid increases in enrollment, the schools are unable to react adequately. Various educators have explored reasons why this is so. Weldon (1972:277) states, "Urban education is frequently misunderstood as an unsuccessful attempt to apply standardized and comprehensive educational programs to unwilling or unable students."

Havighurst and Neugarten (1962) offer another reason as being a class differential operating in the schools they observed. "One can see the school system operating to encourage children of higher social status in nearly every aspect of the school program, formal and informal" (Havighurst and Neugarten, 1962:81). While the effects of long term deprivation are admittedly controversial, Havighurst and Neugarten (1962:133) continue, there are many studies which show evidence that (a) a child's social and intellectual development is a

direct reflection of his environment, (b) the quality of the environment in the first years is of particular importance, and (c) it is difficult to overcome early social and intellectual deprivation. These statements suggest that perhaps it is the institution itself which encourages motivation or extinguishes interest, and environmental factors which influence the development of a child's ability.

A third reason was given in the Harlem Youth Opportunities Unlimited, Inc. study (HARYOU, 1964). The HARYOU authors felt that one of the reasons for high student drop out rates in the Central Harlem area was the substandard performance levels expected of the students by significant adults. Teachers, adult counselors, leaders, youth workers - the significant adult who by virtue of his position influences the lives of the youngsters - must be a person with certain specific qualities.

Frank Riessman (1962) had found several characteristics which are commonly found among effective teachers. The qualities mentioned most often were: being consistent, straight forward, direct, informal, warm, down to earth, dignified and maternal. The teacher must be aware of the culture and class values of the students, must expect to be tested by them and to be undaunted by it; the teacher must be able to pick out the natural leaders and win their support, which will facilitate the teacher's control of the entire class. Avoid lecturing, he warns, and encourage the class to verbalize as much as possible. "The disadvantaged child wants respect, not love; nor does he want a handout. The only way the teacher can honestly give him respect is by comprehending his way of life and his efforts to overcome the negative aspects of the surrounding environment" (Riessman, 1962:81-95;24).

The HARYOU team found that youth responded positively to adult consultants who conveyed a true sense of concern and respect for them, demonstrated competence and firmness; negative feedback was given for consultants who failed to demand competence, failed to follow through, did not measure up to behavior standards or who were "jive" (HARYOU, 1964:577). "Teachers whose pupils showed the most favorable gains in learning, compliance and classroom order [as found by Gorden and Adler, 1963] were those who were perceived by their pupils as stressing performance, seldom relying upon authority, and placing average stress upon expressivity" (Havighurst and Neugarten, 1968: 463).

Instructors who are self confident and considerate make the most effective leaders. Task-oriented Caucasians and high-authority Negroes were found to be preferred most often by male campers participating in a summer sports program. This preference for certain leadership styles did not significantly affect the performance of the sports teams, however (Swine, 1971). From the leader/teacher's perception, more training is needed in areas of social or behavioral science and communication (Soobitsky, 1971). Goyen (1971) studied five critical task areas for Extension youth agents: program development and execution, individual help and counseling, organization, interpersonal relationships, and public relations. He found that competence in areas of agriculture or home economics was not critical for youth agents to be effective. He concludes that youth agents need additional training in the behavioral sciences and in adult or extension education.

Teachers of formal or informal educational programs need to receive personal rewards from their job. Increased job satisfaction

and decreased role ambivalence can be attained by finding ways of making personal rewards high (Heasley, 1971). There may be carry overs of the need for high personal reward when the focus is on volunteers; the speculation could be made that the importance of meeting this criteria would be even more critical because the volunteer does not have the monetary incentive that is included with the professional and paraprofessional roles discussed by Heasley (1971). Moreover, personal involvement in the various aspects of a program seems to be correlated highly with satisfaction. Williams, Babchuk, and Johnson (1973) point out that much research has shown the importance of involvement as increasing favorable self-image, feelings of power and integration. It seems there is a trade off of benefits to the persons involved in community organizations and the community itself, using the specific program as a vehicle.

Educational programs, especially informal programs, need leadership and primarily volunteer leadership if wide spread efforts are to be attained. Where does such an organization look for this leadership? Are there certain identifiable characteristics attributable to volunteers? Several studies show that, when controls are imposed for socio-economic status and age, blacks are more often, or as often, members of voluntary associations as whites. As Olsen (1970) has shown in her study of participation (meaning involvement, not just belonging), after adjustments, blacks were higher than whites in every instance. Blacks who identify with an ethnic community tend to participate more actively than nonidentifiers. She suggests the civil rights efforts as a possible rationale for increased activity in the 1960's when compared to a 1957 study in Detroit.

In The Other America, Harrington (1962:133) cites a Franklin, Indiana study which states that: "people in the bottom class who were without affiliations of any kind were eight times as great as the percentage in the high income class." Hyman and Wright (1971) substantiated the main hypothesis of this study and those of others when they found that most adult Americans (21 years and older) were not members of any voluntary organizations (specifically excluding unions); however, between 1955 and 1962 the number of non-members decreased and most change was noted in the lower income and less educated categories. Racial differences had all but vanished by 1962. Highest memberships were evident in the older age categories (28 years plus), the better educated, and the upper income categories. Babchuk and Booth (1969) conducted a longitudinal study of voluntary association membership and found many of the high membership characteristics consistent with the Hyman and Wright study. Two new dimensions were added, however; a high degree of fluctuation, or turn over, and community size. They conclude that community size is generally unrelated, but they do mention that the majority of adult leaders with youth groups (while comprising only ten percent of the sample, N=1,500) lived in communities of populations less than 50,000. They found a high degree of turnover in this group; leaders were as frequently men as women, most were married with children. Booth (1972) in a study on sex and social participation found similar results. For both men and women there was a high degree of intergenerational transmission of membership in voluntary organizations.

Hodge and Theiman (1968) are cautious in concurring that occupation, education, and income are somewhat related to social

participation; they warn that degree of social participation cannot be fully explained by these socio-economic status factors.

We have seen that the leadership for youth is most favorably persons who are sensitive to the culture and needs of the youth with whom they work. Voluntary memberships of adults while more commonly upper class individuals seem generally to have little racial distinction and also appear to be increasing among low income and less educated volunteers. It can be assumed, therefore, that while larger communities will house fewer people who most frequently join associations, there is increasing potential to draw leadership, as well as participants, for educational programs from within the metropolitan neighborhoods.

The HARYOU study (1964:215) questioned school personnel on the attitude of parents toward the schools, 71 percent of those responding stated that, on the whole, parents viewed the schools in a friendly, positive way. As an educational program, 4-H proceeds on the assumption that parents are concerned about their children and positively inclined to 4-H as an informal educational enrichment. Another asset of parent inclusion might be that "grass roots critical involvement prevents bureaucratic dry rot" (Ibid.:389). It also provides the solid community base 4-H traditionally builds on. "The process, the methods, the enthusiasm, the style, the evidence of serious concern and genuine respect for the human beings involved in short the overall context within which specific programs operate determines program effectiveness" (Ibid.:389).

The process and the methods used by 4-H can be explained generally as a "learning by doing" approach whereby the youth are participants

not spectators in the learning experience. Riessman, in The Culturally Deprived Child, feels that the most optimal learning experience for inner city youth would be a combination of the traditional and progressive approaches. In this regard, Riessman (1962:72) comments:

> The traditionalist contributes structure, rules, discipline, authority, rote, order, organization, and strong external demands for achievement. He fights to win the child to the highest level of conceptual learning. The progressivist places the emphasis on the importance of motivation; the down-to-earth learn by doing; examples drawn from the experience of the child - beginning in the present and moving toward the broad, the abstract, the cultural heritage.

Specifically there are few studies available to substantiate that either approach or even a combination of approaches is more appropriate or effective than the other. A home economics curriculum developed especially for training "socially disadvantaged pupils for homemaking and family membership" saw large gains in cognitive tests measuring knowledge and comprehension of homemaking concepts and favorable scores on tests of self-concept, aspiration and motivation when compared to controls (Carter, 1970). Another program on consumer finance and credit for "inner city youth" saw eighty percent of their sample score ninety percent or better on a post test instrument after showing limited knowledge of automobile finance and credit in a pretest. Conclusion made by the author is that youth will learn what interests them (Gretchko, 1968).

The progressivist is not as successful with the pure approach. Play production (Siegler, 1971) and residential camping experience (Alexander, 1969), or summer recreational sports programs (Swine, 1971) show little or no significant change in the self-concept of the participants.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps program combines the structure of a traditional program with the applied experience of a progressivist curriculum to bring about some measurable change after six months. Enrollees with six months tenure in the program recognized the importance of staying in school and had higher aspirations, and are, therefore, more likely to find better jobs than the head of their household (Decker, 1970).

Relevant and flexible are the two most frequently mentioned adjectives associated with programming for urban 4-H. This tendency was not supported in a survey of thirty urban 4-H club programs, especially those involving boys, conducted by Joseph C. Brownell (1971). His conclusion was that "many of the programs were excellent but reflected the local situations so strongly that transposing them to another situation would be almost impossible." This finding did not violate the notion of "relevant," but certainly dampened the notion of "flexibility." Flexibility connotes, to some degree at least, the impression of generalizability. What degree of adaptability has been found to date with urban youth programming?

Beldon Paulson (1973) and J. Richard Beattie (1973) both attempted to gather information about urban-based Extension programs. Beattie questioned administrators and inner city program directors in fifteen areas covering seven Northeastern states and the District of Columbia. His conclusions are scant and vague. Extension has been successful in developing educational models to meet the needs of low income people; however, the results are modest. The relatively modest impact, and the wide variation of organizational structure and staffing patterns point out the need for a closer look at the current approaches to

find the ways and means to strengthen the programs, realizing the limitations of available resources.

Paulson (1973) received forty-three replies from thirty-nine states on a questionnaire designed to determine the nature of urban programming, the status of urban Extension and models for urban work. His conclusions on the nature of urban youth programming were that the agricultural model has some validity and relevance for expansion of educational programming in urban areas. Twenty-six out of forty-two responses felt that only minor changes would be needed. The problem, fifteen others felt, was mainly the personnel and the lack of commitment from the organization. The agricultural image, the possible conflict between the urban milieu and the rural, the lack of a research base upon which to draw and the possible inflexibility of the organization and the administration of delivery systems were listed as overall limitations to the model and the successful development of urban programs. Expansion, according to Paulson (1973), should not be made at the sacrifice of the rural program nor can it be as effective as the rural program without equivalent or better monetary support.

Parsons, "Inner City Youth Programs: Guidelines" (1971), proposes program and organizational guidelines for the professional youth staff to use in developing and implementing an educational program for inner city youth, and in overcoming some of the barriers as listed in Paulson's survey (1973). Theoretically the organizational framework must be flexible; no one pattern will work every where for everyone. The program should be family centered with parents specifically involved in the programs planned, people-centered with an opportunity for constant interplay and reorganization of thought based on current

needs; organized with a neighborhood base to involve indigenous leaders and young people in an area where there is a high degree of interest and a high probability of success. Continuity of methods, resources, personnel and program efforts are important for success. A broad based program can build its resources by cooperating with other agencies, programs and youth-serving professionals.

Dean of Community Education and Director of Cooperative Extension Service, Federal City College, Washington, D.C., Joseph C. Paige (1970) suggests four key elements to insure success in programming:

(1) linkage with other agencies,

(2) make programs ethnically sensitive,

(3) make programs relevant,

(4) include those for whom the program is intended from the planning stage on.

John Banning, Federal Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture (1968), defines the role of Extension as helping city youth meet their needs with a meaningful activity that provides adult guidance, positive self image and pride in achievement, adult models, status and recognition, economic opportunity and employment preparation, a code to live by, communications and mutual understanding. Thus, some degree of generalizable educational programming is beginning to emerge, but the need remains for some synthesis to be made of fragmented studies as well as research. At this point, the reader might ask, logically, "What is the magnitude of need for such educational programs?"

In 1965, there were an estimated 16.1 million marginal youth (ages 16-20) in this country who were not in school, not married, and

not working. In 1970, the figure of 16-20 year olds who had "dropped out" was expected to pass 18 million. "If the private sector of the economy cannot provide sufficient numbers of jobs [for these youth], then some other agency of society must provide useful and growth promoting experiences" (Havighurst and Neugarten, 1968:325).

Extension has made a commitment to the marginal youth of America (see A People and A Spirit, 1968); through this commitment they reflect the words of the Harlem Youth Opportunities Unlimited, Inc.

> The inviolable undebatable theme of HARYOU is that the youth of Harlem are not expendable. The inherent dignity, worth, and humanity of each young person must be respected and reinforced by the realities of his experience....The youth of Harlem - and of the many Harlems throughout the nation - are the victims of the institutionalized cruelties and blockages of American racism (HARYOU, 1964:41).

From the foregoing one may posit several major expected findings that can serve as the guideposts during the progress of the study.[3]

Expected Findings

The underlying and ever present assumption made in this study is that there are certain factors which build success in educational programming and other factors which contribute to failure in a program. A summary of major expected findings are as follows:

(1) A successful program will have a strong community base. Support from the parents, the businesses and service clubs, as well as involvement of the youth in program planning, leadership roles, and implementation of the program will all be in evidence in successful programs.

(2) A successful program will be responsive to the differences of attitude and culture of the participants, from upper-, middle-, and

lower-class or from rural, suburban or urban environments. Evidence of this concern can be observed by examining the variety of projects and activities offered and taken.

(3) A successful program will include support for the volunteer leadership, whether adult or teen, through supervision and training. This will be determined by concern expressed and ongoing programs or methods built into the system.

(4) A successful program will have shown growth in numbers, and monetary support over the last few years. Quality is often reflected in an increase in participation and money follows program growth.

(5) A successful program will be expected to elicit comment of significant changes to the lives of the participants, individually or as a group, and changes in the community as a result of the program being considered.

The qualities of the teacher/leader are indirectly linked to each of the foregoing considerations. The importance of these characteristics have been attested to by Riessman, Havighurst, and others. It is difficult to determine the extent to which the influence of the teacher is independent of other factors or the singularly specific qualities which are most effective. In this regard, Huse and Bowditch (1973:149) have stated:

> The researchers conclude that leadership style is important in organizations, but that the difference 'may not be so much in terms of what the leader does but may be in terms of how it is interpreted by his members.' These landmark studies have stressed the importance of a leader's effectiveness by the type of industry he is in, as well as his personal style of leadership. In other words, these studies form the basis for a contingency theory of leadership and organizational design; one cannot be studied without taking into account the other, a failing in most of the early studies on leadership.

It is an area that deserves immediate attention, moreover, to ascertain its importance on 4-H urban youth educational programming.

FOOTNOTES

1. Hauser (1970) emphasizes this point with statistics that show that between 1910 and 1960, the proportion of total Negroes located in the North and West almost quadrupled, increasing from 11 to 40 percent. Within the fifty year period, the Negro population had been transformed from 73 percent rural to 73 percent urban.

   Tilly (1970) discusses the migration and transience of the Appalachian whites. Chicago, as an example, has had an estimated 30,000 recent migrants from the Appalachian Mountains, one school in an Appalachian neighborhood had 1,500 children who entered or left during the school year for every 1,000 who stayed the entire year.

2. The Sixty-third Congress of the United States established the Cooperative Extension Service on a permanent, national basis in 1914, through enactment of the Smith-Lever Act. The purpose of this new agency was to diffuse useful and practical agricultural and home economics information through demonstrations, publications and other methods to all people. The enactment and funding of the Smith-Lever Act made such programs possible within the Land Grant College system, that had earlier been established under the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890.

3. Obviously, all research must, by necessity, proceed within the bounds of some particular conceptual framework. The author has chosen to use Systems Approach as the structural outline for synthesizing selected educational programming efforts as presented in the literature, by 4-H and by the urban youth serving agencies. The systems approach and its various components will be delineated in detail in Chapter III (see figure 1, p. 28, and figure 2, p. 33) rather than at this point.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Researchers seldom put forth the effort needed to synthesize information from accumulated studies. A major reason for this lack of effort is the amount of time required to prepare such a history. A second reason stems from the necessity of formulating a conceptual framework sufficiently sensitive to permit meaningful synthesis to take place. A third reason is that synthesis is not considered to be "original work" by many professionals. These constraints, singularly or in combination, have hindered the process of synthesis. This author considers such an endeavor necessary in regard to the need to organize the available data and relevant literature on youth serving agencies and voluntary membership in order to determine the relevancy and generalizability of current educational programming for urban youth.

This type of survey analysis should be helpful to youth workers and programmers of youth activities. Hopefully certain approaches and methods will be found to reoccur, to be useful, and to be supported in several cases. Thus, a direction of successful programming can be established. Conversely, other approaches and methods may prove to be of little or no use; thus helping others avoid program pitfalls which youth programmers have shown lead to failure.

Survey of Literature

This survey of literature was not intended to be exhaustive, but selective, as it pertains to urban youth programming. In fact, much of the literature reviewed was found to be relative to the broad general subject of youth programming. This review, however, provided

little information regarding approaches and methods that were current and directly applicable to the question: How does one plan activities for urban youth so that they will be involved, enjoy such involvement and learn something?

Most of the studies reviewed focused more on characteristics of membership and leadership than on the program content or process. Most of the literature found, therefore, is relative to, but not specifically about, urban youth programs. The literature will be reviewed within the Systems Approach framework for cogency to the thrust of this paper.

Survey of 4-H Programs

Five metropolitan centers, in the Northeastern quarter of the country, were contacted by mail and telephone, for reports, surveys, and information pamphlets that had been published concerning their youth program (see Appendices A and B for sample copies of the contact letters). Baltimore City, Maryland; Newark, New Jersey; New York City, New York; and Indianapolis, Indiana, were the geographic centers responding to the contacts made for the study. There was no response from one contact. A phone call was made to the program in New York City, New York, and some information was gathered verbally from them. The materials from their program have not arrived at the time of this writing.

These cities were chosen because the program has shown growth in urban work in the last few years. In addition, personnel from these 4-H programs were known professionally to Dr. J. John Harris, III, Urban 4-H and Youth Specialist, Pennsylvania Cooperative Extension

Service. He felt these agents were involved in programs of significance to this study and would be responsive to the author's questions.

The author realizes there are other urban programs of significant value to warrant follow up study. Future studies may like to consider programs from Rochester, New York; Syracuse, New York; Cleveland, Ohio; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

While the materials are admittedly subjective and limited in usefulness, they do provide some live referents for helping to confirm or deny the conclusions and assumptions made in the literature. Urgency of time and limited scope of this study mitigated against consideration of programs from any more areas, or more in depth studies of the ones surveyed.

Survey of Other Youth Serving Agencies

Four youth serving agencies having large reported membership, some structure in programming and administration were chosen for a supplementary part of the analysis. Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, Boy Scouts of America, and the Girl Scouts of the United States were included because of their broad membership base within the metropolitan areas. Each of these organizations has been formed "to promote a viewpoint through the recreational and educational activities they offer" (Coyle, 1948:64).

The agency purpose will be different in each case, adherence to this purpose will also vary, and thus limit the extent to which ideas can be transfered directly to the urban 4-H program. Some innovative ways to prepare, present, and evaluate urban youth programs more effectively from the program content, style and leadership of these

groups may surface, however, and be of use to 4-H personnel. Ideas for adaptation to the 4-H programs or cooperation between youth serving agencies may be stimulated through this short discourse.

The author realizes that adaptation and transferability do not encompass the entirety of development and meaningful continuation of urban youth programming. It is felt that these terms are sufficient when preparation, presentation, and evaluation are included in the context of the urban milieu. The urgency of time and the defined limits of the study will prevent any extensive consideration of this problem.

The survey of 4-H programs from selected urban sites and the survey of other youth serving agencies will be reported within the framework of a compendium of the Systems Model.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS AND RELATIONSHIPS

Investigation into the process of program development for urban youth will be conducted in three areas. The first is a review of literature; the second, responses from four urban Extension agents working in select metropolitan areas of the Northeast concerning their particular programs; and third, an overview of several other youth serving agencies, including the scouting programs, and the Christian Associations.

An evaluation model known as the Systems Approach (see Figure 1, p. 28) was chosen as the frame of reference for analysis. The Systems Approach was developed in the science of biology as a method of explaining the interdependence of plant and animal cycles, but has been adapted for use by other disciplines such as business management, sociology and finally education. Various adaptations of this approach have been developed for use in the initiative, formative, and summative evaluations of social systems and programs. The one presented in this paper was chosen for its completeness and clarity. A definition of the steps are outlined in order to provide the reader with a picture of the process to be used.

THE SYSTEMS APPROACH

Systems Analysis

Analysis of the relevant situation is one of the most frequently overlooked sections of the developmental system. First under systems analysis (as enumerated in Figure 1, p. 28) is problem identification. This step should be accomplished by a succinct statement of the issue

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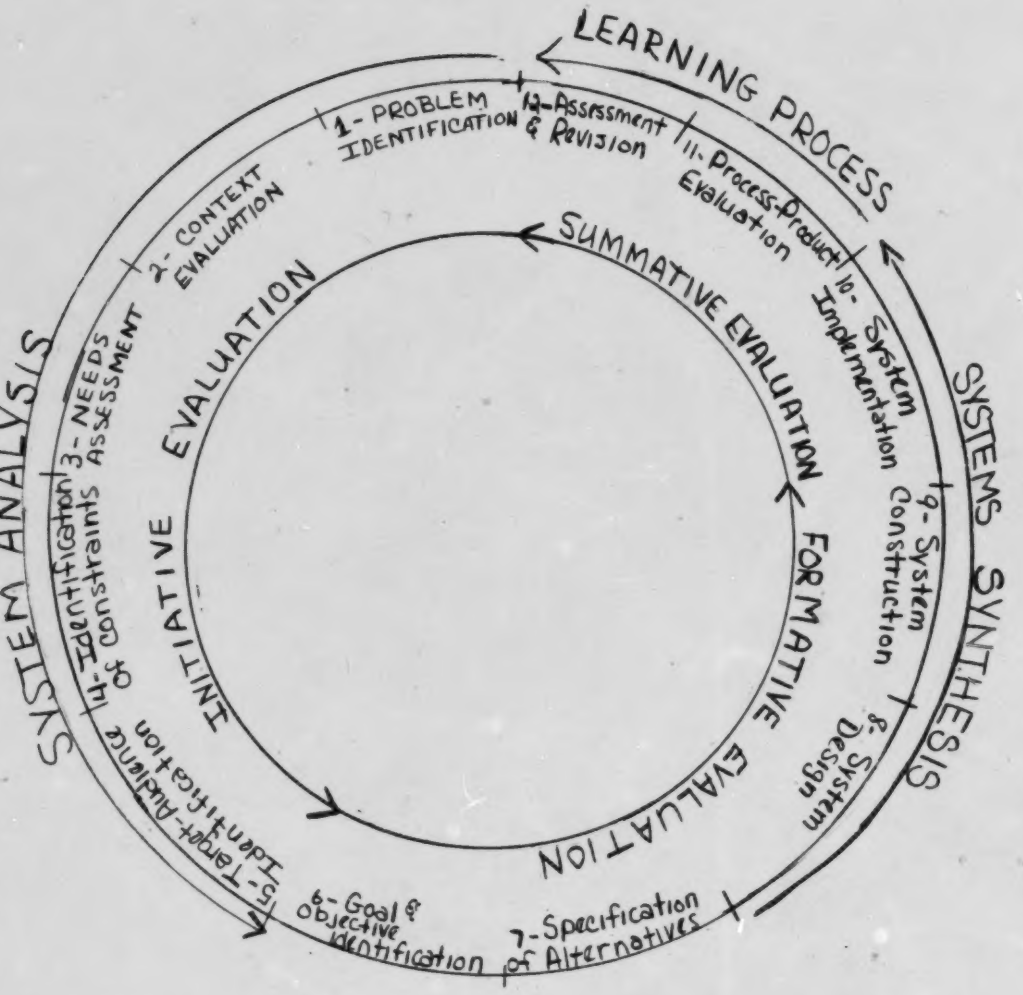
FIGURE I: THE SYSTEMS APPROACH

"A cycle to problem solving"[1]



in question, and substantiated with solid rationale. This is a vital first step in the logical process that is required to reach some specified end result; its purpose is to identify and define the problem.

Second, evaluate the context; "one looks at relevant characteristics of the environment in which he is to operate, and he gets a fix on the discrepancy between actual outputs in the area of concern and outputs which would seem desirable. He also notes the social and political characteristics and the influences they are likely to have" (Hayman, 1974:10). Such techniques as interviews, questionnaires, case studies, review of relevant documents have been used as facilitators of this phase of the systems approach.

Evaluation of content leads directly into the third part the Systems Analysis; namely to conduct a needs assessment in order to identify the potential audience and the physical areas as targets. Evaluation of the present program and its situation are necessary to determine areas for change.

Fourth, identification of constraints and resource limitations should follow needs assessment. After program developers have identified their area of greatest need, they must then consider the feasibility of implementing change by looking at the total resources of money, personnel, time, physical facilities, community support and cooperation that will be available to affect the problem.

The fifth or final phase of systems analysis involves examination of the target audience and its characteristics. It is obvious that an educational program which is not responsive to the behavior, attitudes, knowledge level and values of the potential audience will be met with resistence and frustration by the intended audience, other relevant

organizations and the community at large from the beginning.

Specific Goals and Objectives

Sixth, behavioral objectives and goals for the program must be comprehensive, yet specific, and include the behavioral changes expected, and the delineation of the learning that is to take place. These objectives must be stated in measurable terms, as suggested by Mager (1962). Clarification of these elements defines the direction of the program, in light of the circumstantial evidence gathered in the systems analysis section.

Specification of Alternatives

"At this point there will almost always be a number of options available to [the program planner], that is, [seventh,] a number of alternative ways in which the desired outcomes might be achieved, and the problem is to pick the one which is most likely to succeed best within the constraints" (Hayman, 1974:13). It is important that this decision is made with as complete information as possible on each of the alternatives for a wrong judgment could prove costly and time consuming.

Systems Synthesis

After selection has been made of the most promising program method, eighth, designing or redesigning the relevant systems must take place. On the basis of the information collected, the relevant system is actually structured and operationalized.

Ninth, constructing or modifying the systems' components

according to the design is rather mechanical but requires caution. Some programs progress step-by-step, testing each stage before proceeding on to the next; while others choose to implement the entire package and then proceed to the final stages.

Tenth, systems implementation is the total process in action. This is the phase towards which all the foregoing phases have been geared. In fact, this is their raison d'etre.

Learning Process

Almost as soon as systems implementation occurs, the eleventh step, process evaluation can begin in order to determine how well or how poorly the components of the system are operating in practice. Problem areas can be discovered along with the reasons they exist and the methods to subsequently eliminate them. This process of feedback is continuous. Product evaluation is then carried out to determine the extent to which objectives are being achieved and to check on outputs.

Final feedback is done in the form of assessment, revision, and recycling (twelfth step) back into the systems analysis stage of the system. Positive feedback is used to expand the program and negative feedback tends to contract the scope of the program. This process is intended to diminish the discrepancy between achieved outcomes and intended outcomes, to achieve "maximum efficiency at minimal cost" (Hayman, 1974:16).

Realizing that the system of the program under consideration is not operating in a void, one must consider the entire environmental context and its influences. In this case, such factors as the

Extension Service system, attitudes and values of the farm community traditionally served by Extension, the reactions of the funding sources such as County Commissioners, and the situation of other service agencies and their inclinations toward involvement in Extension projects would all have some effect on the total system.

This condition might be visualized as in Figure 2 (p. 33).

Survey of Literature

A program desiring to serve youth in urban areas has a multitude of aspects to consider throughout its development. The dimensions of such progress, as found in the literature, will be discussed systematically according to the analytical model (Figure 1, p. 28) described previously.

Community involvement is an important component of the planning stages as several documentations, cited in previous chapters, have shown. The personal and societal benefits of such involvement are multiple. The Arkansas Special Project study concluded, for instance,

> There is a direct correlation between the amount of local support and the effectiveness of reporting plans and results of work with the disadvantaged. The more intimate individuals are with the work, the more likely they will support it....Regardless of their socio-economic backgrounds, disadvantaged youth and their families are interested in informal educational opportunities provided they are designed to meet their needs, interests, and concerns (Word, 1968:51).

The Harlem Youth Opportunities Unlimited, Inc. (HARYOU) expressed their reasons for including community members of all types in their preplanning surveys.

> The nature of the problem and the realities and stresses of the community demanded action-oriented research, a sensitivity to the conflicts and protests within the

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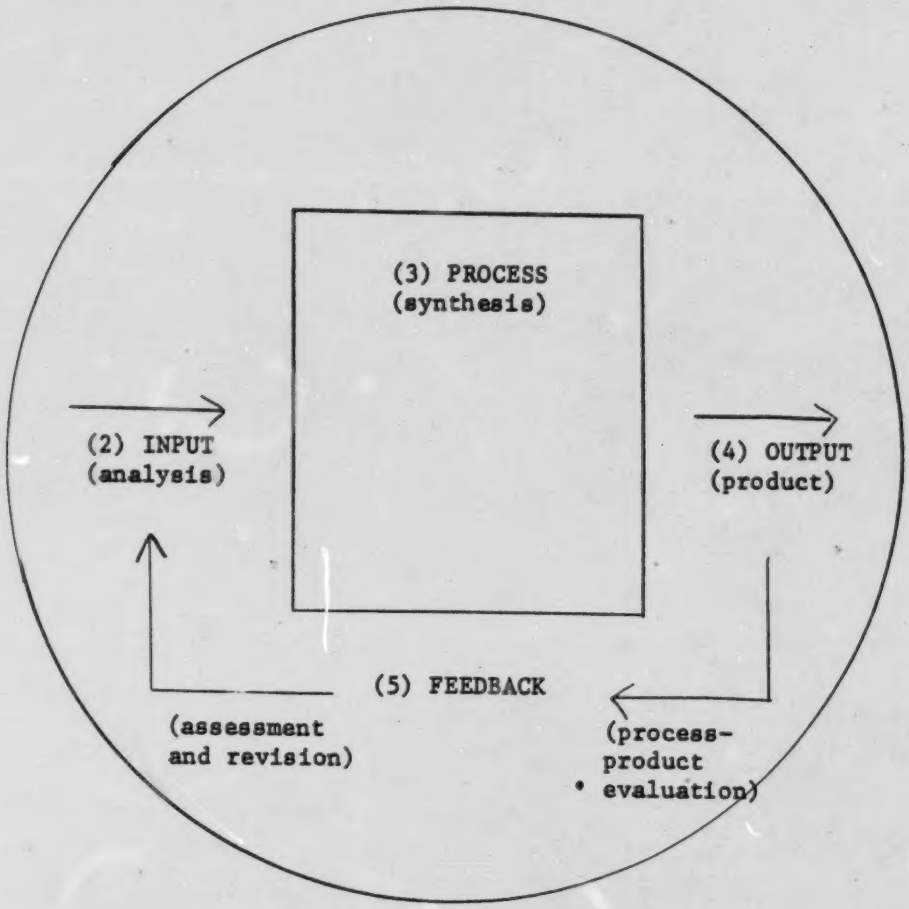
FIGURE 2: THE SYSTEMS APPROACH

"A Compendium"



(1) ENVIRONMENT

> community, and an attempt at the mobilization of the various interests which comprise this volatile community....The problems of Harlem's youth are inextricably interwoven with the nature and dynamics of the community. A program for Harlem's youth must emerge, therefore, from a realistic appraisal of, and must be relevant to, these complex, and at times, conflicting community forces.
>
> For these and other reasons, therefore, it would not only have been unrealistic but foolhardy to attempt to develop a major comprehensive program for Harlem's youth without attempting to involve large segments of the community (HARYOU, 1964:30).

The Extension Service has recognized the importance of community involvement as evidenced in several articles appearing in the Extension Journal.[2] Joseph C. Paige, Federal City College and the Cooperative Extension Service, has mentioned involving the persons being served in the planning in his article "4-H for Central City Minorities" (1970), and Jerry Parsons, "Inner-City Youth Programs: Guidelines" (1971), has included several points relative to community development. Organize on a community basis, he says, using indigenous leadership. Youth programs should be people-oriented, and family centered. The clientele, i.e. the youth and the adults of the service area, should be making contributions to the program planning, the implementation and the evaluation.

Kelsey and Hearne (1963:160) note in their book on the Cooperative Extension Service,

> The use of community committees in deciding upon programs is a sound desirable practice, but the small number which actually function indicates that agents either feel they do not have the time or energy to work with them or they have been satisfied to depend on the various countywide committees. Community committees are the basis for a grass-roots organization....Community committees are the source of leadership for county committees....In this way the local Extension program is strengthened.

Programming for youth in an urban setting is not an isolated process. Attempts to become responsive to the contextual environment, through seeking, encouraging and facilitating community involvement, from the planning stages on, is imperative. Inadequate resources such as money, staff, or facilities can no longer be the excuse for program failure, organizers must recognize the inadequacies of imagination, vision, and flexibility as blocking meaningful involvement with real problems of community and people (HARYOU, 1964:310).[3]

The most critical step in the initiative evaluation in systems analysis is "identification of the problem" (see Figure 1, part 1 for clarification, p. 28). The overriding problem, as has been discussed earlier in the paper, is the rapid social, political and environmental changes that necessitate innovative responses in education. This paper focuses on the typically rural-oriented, informal youth education program, i.e. 4-H, as it expands to encompass a broader, more metropolitan audience.

In 1968, a joint committee of representatives from USDA-Federal Extension and the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC) prepared a report for the direction and planning of Extension Service Programs in the future. A People and A Spirit (1968) defined the home economics curriculum as quality of living programs, and encouraged their being available equally to rural and urban residents. In 1964, the Arkansas Extension Service cooperated with the Federal Extension Service to conduct a four year study on reaching "disadvantaged" youth through an informal education program. Essentially, this was a special effort to plan, execute, and evaluate a program that has been specifically designed to meet the needs,

interests and concerns of this youthful clientele.

Consistent with the statement of purpose outlined by A People and A Spirit, this study is concerned "that in an affluent democratic society every individual is entitled to develop to the extent of his individual desire and capacity" (Word, 1968:5). The national program is by necessity broadly defined. The problems of the state, county, or neighborhood must be clearly defined by those who will benefit from the solutions.

The community and the program personnel must come to an agreement that will satisfy needs for both. This leads discussion to the next two steps of the model. First as consideration of the context is made, and second, is an evaluation of needs. The benefits of having community people involved will become ever more clear as their input and intimate knowledge of the informal social and political communities increases over time.

Consideration of the environment, that is "contextual evaluation" (Figure 1, part 2), within which the program is to operate cannot be ignored. "Community" has many possible interpretations, each being important for its own contribution to the whole. The whole is more frequently being considered as the metropolitan area, that which "is taking the place of the city as the most useful geographical unit for thinking about the coordination and the organization of educational, governmental, and other social systems" (Havighurst, ed., 1968:4). The Extension community of a local area must be in agreement with the focus of the program; the political community could mean the County Commissioners who appropriate the agency's funds or the people as a collective body, capable of putting pressure on the agency.

The educational system and the social welfare system, perhaps because both deal so directly with families and young people, now appear to be developing cooperative relationships which are not only more formal and extensive but also more intimate and permanent than the relationships between the schools and any of the other major social systems in modern society (Levine and Havighurst, 1968:63).

Any Extension program depends on the acceptance and trust of the social group it is serving. Improved communication between the professional youth worker and the adults of the community, that might develop from a better understanding of the community, would have several benefits. One of the first steps in improving the education of the "culturally deprived child" is to establish the importance of education to "underprivileged" adults (Riessman, 1962:10). Bruno Bettleheim, in an article in Rethinking Urban Education (Walberg and Kopan, eds., 1972:9), says, "Teachers get bogged down when they cannot transcend their own value system to meet that of the children. They need clinician's help in going beyond their middle-class mores....they push academics at the expense of those emotional problems which, when not handled, prevent learning altogether." As we have said previously, more positive attitudes toward the program and the relationship with low-income clientele exist when there is little role discrepency between the professional and the personal involvement and satisfaction gained (Heasley, 1971 and Welsh, 1971).

Such close interaction between parents, community residents and the program coordinators becomes the vehicle for learning on both sides. The community volunteers involve themselves in the program and planning, such participation has been shown to increase feelings of

favorable self-image, control and integration. The ideal effect of the inclusion of community residents, then, is that they should become more concerned about their neighborhood, more capable of affecting change and actively involved in controlling it.

The program coordinators have an opportunity to become personally involved, to identify with the community problems, and to learn to comprehend more clearly the culture and the value system of the youth being served. Riessman (1966) has said the only way a teacher can give students the respect they need is by understanding their way of life. To optimize the learning environment, it is vitally important that the program developers become familiar with the subculture involved.

Comprehensive knowledge of the political, cultural, and societal atmosphere of a target environment can be used to enhance the development of a program or, if ignored or misunderstood, can undermine the possibility of continued progress. Understanding the various positions of these communities in regard to the problem can be useful in determining the strategy that will be utilized in achieving a feasible solution to the question. Finding and coordinating the resources that are available to the youth worker and the program throughout the metropolitan area is another challenge. "Educators, government officials, and businessmen are developing a theory and a practice of the relations of the physical environment to human satisfactions in the metropolitan area" (Havighurst, ed., 1968:4).

The role of the program coordinator becomes increasingly complex; so complex in fact, that one might wonder if it demands too much of one person. The amount of flexibility and responsiveness as well as organizational ability and executive talent needed to perform the

task are difficult and rare to find.

A "needs assessment" (Figure 1, part 3) should help the youth serving agencies to determine the areas of program development which warrant the highest priority. The first level of assessment should be done by the professional staff in deciding on an area of concentration. In November, 1973, the Extension Service published a manual titled Future Dimensions of Urban 4-H Programs in which several suggestions for program or "unmet needs of youth in the cities" were listed as follows:

(1) understanding and fulfilling one's role in our society,

(2) developing independence,

(3) acquiring economic independence,

(4) learning socially acceptable behavior,

(5) developing and using active, inquiring minds to their fullest potential,

(6) physically developing to the individual's optimum,

(7) exploring career opportunities,

(8) preparing for marriage,

(9) developing a value system to guide behavior within the society,

(10) gaining the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for making wise use of leisure time (Soobitsky, 1973:1-3).

Community input in the decisions regarding program helps the agents identify the immediate needs of the people for whom the program is to be designed. A Study of 4-H Youth and 4-H Programming (1974) was published to serve this purpose for three counties in Pennsylvania. "This study was intended to determine the needs of youth as they

perceive them; the extent to which 4-H is perceived by them to be meeting these needs, and the kinds of program content and involvement youth see as needed in 4-H" (Gottlieb and Lewis, 1974:1). This survey found some behavioral trends, but the most "startling" finding is that 4-H does not "keep pace" with youth as they grow older. Heavy emphasis on awards and competition, and the inability of 4-H to help meet the more personal needs such as changes in sex roles, work, and life styles are mentioned as issues which must be understood by and dealt with by those who work with youth and develop programs which will attract them (Gottlieb and Lewis, 1974:80-81).

The need to respond to cultural values and youth is logical. Inherent in the structure of the program is the element of free choice. The participant is not being overtly coerced in any way to join in the activities of the youth program. The relevancy and the interest level determine the number of members a program attracts. It is not enough that the professional staff should identify what the youth need. One basic need is the opportunity for self-determination. Because this is a personal and a temporal decision, the program must be ready to allow for both changes in the program design and membership composition.

Interest and need are two central elements that must be met to have any program functioning at all. It is precisely this point that makes it imperative that programs strive to be relevant and responsive to the wants and needs of youth.

Realizing that no program and no professional can fulfill every expectation of every individual, certain priority lists must be determined. "Constraints of resources" (Figure 1, part 4) such as time, money, facilities, and personnel must be realistically

considered. Community restrictions may become a factor through neighborhood pressure. There may be governmental or legal conditions that must also be taken into consideration. Sound assessment of the organization, its administrative ability to handle the new ideas, and its willingness of commitment to the new program must all be carefully thought through. Often it is at this point that failure is built into the program. Government contracts, for instance, are terminal, communications on guidelines are unclear or change quickly. It is best to program with this possibility in mind in order to eliminate or reduce the chance for embarrassment and mistrust within the community itself.

The "target audience" (Figure 1, part 5) has been defined for Extension in the 1968 report titled A People and A Spirit when they state, "The joint Study Committee recommends that the priority groups for greatly increased attention in Extension's quality of living programs be the disadvantaged youth and adults in rural slums and urban ghettos, potential school dropouts, young families, and unemployed out-of-school young adults" (A People and A Spirit, 1968:63). From this point, an audience can be identified which will be appropriate to the purposes of the program. In the particular case of the urban youth, certain characteristics must be larified for the individual situation. "Urban" can be loosely defined as any town of 2,500 population to a megapolis of two million. In this particular study information has been included which deals with lower-income audiences, and audiences with multi-racial composition.

There is some controversy concerning the "specific goals and objectives" (Figure 1, part 6) that should be implemented in an urban

program. In Paulson's study (1973), the questionnaire was sent to administrators in states where Extension has programs in urban areas. The agricultural model was generally accepted as being valid and relevant by the respondents. John Banning, Federal Extension 4-H Office, Washington, D.C., recommends, in a reference manual for Extension personnel, that the situation be studied in its positive and negative aspects, keeping in mind their implications for 4-H. Other authors, as have been discussed before, recognize the uniqueness of the urban milieu and the need for responsive, flexible programs and objectives.

"Plans for human and economic development must be based on realistic situations and honest evaluation of results. You must necessarily be concerned with accomplishments in terms of: confidence increased, attitudes changed, communication improved, group skills developed, practices adopted, relationships established" (Reaching the Hard to Reach, 1973:7). These are good examples of general goals. Behavioral objectives must be more concise and phrased in measurable terms such as, "I will organize ten new groups, and recruit twenty new leaders by the end of the year." "Each leader will be able to teach ten lessons in food to ten 4-H members by the end of the training program." These latter statements are concrete enough that their attainment can be seen and measured. Success, accomplishment and goal attainment must be easily discernible in order that the participants of the program can experience the satisfaction of achievement.

"Enumeration of the possible alternatives" (Figure 1, part 7) to the attainment of a goal prevents a breakdown in the progress of the overall plan. Each goal should have several alternatives enumerated,

then one should be chosen for implementation. This decision is made by the criteria of the staff and the committee. The variety of projects and activities that have been suggested through the journals and magazines include over 6,000 4-H publications, ranging from animal projects to yarn work; ideas for camping programs, overnight and day camps, have been widely used and varied; paid leadership or paraprofessional leader/recruiters involve more people in 4-H programs, work-study programs with high schools and college students; school programs and cooperative programs with other youth-serving agencies, urban youth centers and church-based clubs are other methods of organization.

Formative evaluation begins with the "design of the system" (Figure 1, part 8). The National 4-H Urban Development Committee has recommended some specific educational areas that might be considered program possibilities.

> Social skills,
> interpersonal relationships,
> community involvement,
> education for mental and physical well being,
> money management,
> citizenship - understanding the system,
> helping others,
> understanding other racial/ethnic groups,
> work experience,
> family life education,
> personal hygiene and care,
> use of time wisely....
> The needs of all youth such as to belong, to develop respect for self and others, to establish positive interpersonal relationships, to seek positive models to emulate, to develop basic language and communication skills, to succeed and to learn societal skills must be considered (Soobitsky, 1973:10-11).

Some elements of successful programs have been recommended by Frank Riessman on how-to-learn learning for "disadvantaged pupils" which consider the strengths in the child's experience as primary

and stresses respect and concern on the part of the school; motivation, interest, and learning habits/styles on the part of the child (Riessman, 1966).

Suggestions from programs that have been tested can sometimes be the most helpful in making decisions on design of a new project. From Tucson, Arizona, and the Arkansas Special Youth Project come some very similar and consistent suggestions for programming for low-income youth.

(1) Projects should be simple so that the project can be completed and a sense of achievement gained from the experience.

(2) More complicated tasks may have to be broken up into smaller steps that, when completed, will also give the child the sense of accomplishment and the encouragement to continue.

(3) As few expensive tools or materials as possible should be used, and when they are some provision should be made to ensure the availability of these materials to everyone. (Some groups raise the money for special projects themselves, and only those who help raise the money are allowed to share the benefits.)

(4) The projects that are offered should be relevant to the everyday experiences of the club members; this reinforces the environment and the learning of the children.

(5) Enhancement of this environment can be provided through learning of skills and knowledge which give the child more control over and more versatility within the environment. Some salable skills or talents of a particular trade may be examples. Hammering a nail, sewing a straight line are two possibilities.

(6) Initiation and decision making on the part of the program participants should be encouraged, even planned into the design.

(7) How to think through problems, and how to work together with others are important components of a successful program.

(8) Maximum control should be given each participant to determine his own interests and plan of work. The individual must first satisfy himself and the project leaders must become sensitive to the needs of each member (Brown and Bradish, 1971; Word, 1968).

"Systems construction," and "system implementation" (Figure 1, parts 9 and 10) would be mechanical if the Systems Approach is used

effectively to this point.

Summative evaluation is an integral part of the Learning Process (Figure 1, parts 11 and 12) which "assess the process of the program versus the product." If the objectives of the program are well defined, as has been suggested, and clearly stated in terms of observable changes, then some measure of program affect can be made. Assessment of the program will be consistent with these outlined goals and objectives (from Figure 1, part 6). Flanagan, in an article from Educational Evaluation: New Roles, New Means (1969:241), feels that "evaluation should be in terms of a specific educational objective with reference to a particular individual and with careful study of any possible unplanned effects of the program in addition to the objective sought." Stake interprets summative evaluation as a measure of the degree of goodness of fit of an available curriculum to the overall program and the degree to which intended "antecedent," "transaction," and "outcome" data are consistent with resources, standards and goals of the program (Weiss, ed., 1973:50).

"Recommended revisions" (Figure 1, part 12) are made and fed back into the system. Flanagan (1969:241) emphasizes, "one of the important trends is the recognition that all educational programs are tentative. Therefore, a system of evaluation which provides for continuous improvement of all of the aspects of the educational program is especially important at this time."

Generally the data have supported the major expected findings. The need for community involvement is emphasized repeatedly by a variety of persons with professional experiences. Affecting every phase of the model is the need for accurate knowledge of the

environment that only community people can provide.

The data underscore the necessity for leaders of programs to understand the subcultures and the environment of the youth and to transmit a feeling of respect to them. A responsive and malleable program would reflect the extent to which the community is involved and the leadership is aware of the needs of youth. Some suggestions for program design are also included.

For further exploration of the data as related to major expected findings, this discussion turns its attention to some 4-H programs that are presently in operation.

Survey of 4-H Programs

The process of establishing a 4-H program in the inner city is a formidable task. Often, there will be resistance to the program from the traditional membership and apprehensiveness on the part of the new membership to an organized program, largely unknown to the new audience. "Many [youth in disadvantaged areas, urban and rural] do not feel that participation in existing organizations is for them, or they may not be aware of the many opportunities that do exist. They need stimulating learning experiences that are real and meaningful to their situation" (Niederfrank, et al., 1972:3).

Five urban programs were contacted for information on their projects, and the 4-H program in their city. Four responses were elicited from Newark, New Jersey; Indianapolis, Indiana; Baltimore City, Maryland; New York City, New York. There was no response from one contact.

These 4-H programs will be discussed in terms of the Compendium of the Systems Approach as pictured in Figure 2 (p. 33).

Newark, New Jersey

Newark, New Jersey has a well defined and concentrated program, designed to respond to the needs of the youth and the community within its boundaries of the South Ward, Newark. The environment (Figure 2, part 1) has been defined by its political jurisdiction.

A lot of time was spent planning for this program. The amount of input (Figure 2, part 2) required by this community is discussed in their report, Helping New Jersey Urban Youth Help Themselves,

> the first six months of the project focused on staffing, location of a facility or center of operation, establishing an office, staff orientation, organizing an advisory council, and developing contacts with youth, parent groups, community leaders, and public officials....During the first year of the Project the facilities of the local precinct were used for program operation....All this preprogram preparation necessarily took considerable time, but it was believed to be time well spent, for it laid a solid basis that later proved to be essential (Niederfrank, et al., 1972:8-9).

The system was designed to be of the people, reiterating the community's influence and the importance of the neighborhood involvement as seen by the program organizers.

The youth were given program suggestions from which they could choose the topics that interested them. Choices included typing skills, cooking, community service projects, educational seminars and workshops, field trips, athletic teams, and so on. "If a few youth express an interest in something or a new need comes to the attention of the staff, a program is set up to serve the problem or need and in some cases this grows into something big" (Niederfrank, et al.,

1972:13). This emphasizes the recognized importance of flexibility in the program plan.

A drill team was first started in order to involve the youth in a meaningful and satisfying program, and to bring the program to the community. An indication that this program found an enthusiastic audience is the 100 percent increase in drill teams in the last three years.

The wide exposure that this program and the other Center activities (Figure 2, part 3) have given the participants has sparked interest among other youth in the area, as well as having some positive effects on the community at large. An improved image of 4-H within the city has developed, there is a new community identity of the youth, and the community looks to the Center for community organization and improvement as a result of the program success (Figure 2, part 4) (Niederfrank, et al., 1972:48-49).

Feedback (Figure 2, part 5) of the program includes suggestions for further development or new development of similar projects, such as:

(1) young people will positively respond with improved behavior to realistic programs; they want to learn.

(2) parents and community will respond to programs that produce meaningful, practical accomplishments of the youth.

(3) volunteer leaders can be recruited on the basis of asking them to assist with one-shot, simple tasks.

(4) it is not advisable to discuss urban inner city 4-H youth work as low-income or poverty; it is "youth development."

(5) allowing for flexibility of operation is a key factor.

Spontaneity and the "teachable moment" are important ideas to urban youth work.

(6) programs can be successful that are short term and grow out of situational conditions; methods must be simple.

(7) start with a goal but do not start with getting the youth to set the goal. The interpretation of the accomplishments after the fact is an important part of urban projects (Niederfrank, et al., 1972:55-58).

Success has been attributed to the 4-H program, as a long established successful educational program; to the leadership given the program; to the involvement of the people and the concentration placed on personal development.

Indianapolis, Indiana

Indianapolis, Marion County, Indiana has a multivariant program model in 4-H work. The construction of the Indiana system is intended to give the agents each a particular piece of the program for which they are responsible, coordinated by one person and supportive of the other parts.

The target audiences in this program are the youth and the adults of the community. The goal of the youth segment is to come up "with whatever turns [them] on and provides them with educational tasks to help them develop into useful citizens" (Indy Report, 1973). The adult leaders are an important part of this program, as well, and are trained to establish a guided, flexible youth opportunity.

This program exhibits several of the factors suggested as being important to successful programming. The involvement of the adults,

the flexibility of the program and the goal of providing the youth with achievable yet challenging tasks are exemplified in this operation.

Most of the information available on the Indianapolis program focuses on the process (Figure 2, part 3) aspects of the model. Several methods of programming are implemented by the staff in Marion County, Indiana. Some of them are described here.

The use of work-study personnel, Neighborhood Youth Corps workers, college and high school students and summer volunteers have helped to augment the number of participants that can benefit from the 4-H program. Funds have come from donations and grants to supplement the regular appropriation for the county office. Other resources such as meeting rooms, craft or project supplies, equipment and so on have been donated or borrowed from other agencies.

Cooperation with other community agencies augments the resources of this program. There are township 4-H programs within the school system, with twenty-four supervisory leaders giving guidance to the ten geographical units covered, and to the four hundred adult leaders conducting programs.

There are Neighborhood-Community programs organized in a community or neighborhood with forty-one volunteers helping to develop and guide the programs in continuation of their goal, i.e. to meet the needs of the youth and the community. Neighborhood Associations have been organized in some communities; donation of funds for work-study students, use of physical facilities, development of neighborhood programs (using the Extension office as a resource only), and general contributions of individuals all have been indications of growing community development and independence.

The Summer Day Camp, called "The Happening," is the work of three agents with assistance from 4-H teen leaders and college students. Programming includes preparation of lunches, arts and crafts, recreational games and songs, hikes, nature study of bugs, and planting seedlings.

Some special projects are conducted with churches as the cooperating agency; 4-H sponsors a summer school program in home economics through the public school system. Career orientation programs in the high schools, outdoor physical recreation and the traditional supportive 4-H activities such as Dress Revue, Demonstrations, Citizenship Short Course and Capitol Days are part of the on-going, on-growing program.

Baltimore City, Maryland

The information from Baltimore City included eight projects developed for the youth program, and was, therefore, very process oriented (see Figure 2, part 3). Games, songs, and crafts manuals were all simply written and pictorially uncomplicated. As was recommended in the Arkansas study and the Newark report, the simple and easily completed projects are the most successful because the child can quickly gain a sense of satisfaction and achievement from finishing a task.

Two of the booklets were very elementary versions of the electric projects, i.e. bells with electro magnets and batteries (for a sample, see Appendix C). These projects are consistent with several other recommendations made from the Arkansas and Arizona studies. Number one, projects should be relevant to the everyday experience of the members; and number two, enhancement of this environment can be provided

through learning skills and knowledge which give the child more control over and more versatility within the environment.

Two fliers announced bus trips to Hershey and a local skating rink, organized by the 4-H Traveler's Club, an innovative and unusual 4-H project. Camping fliers for an overnight camping experience and fund raising ideas for camp were both included in the packet.[4]

New York City, New York

The New York City program is concentrating on training of professionals and paraprofessionals in youth activities in community centers, YMCA's, YWCA's, churches; teachers and health supervisors have also received Extension training. Input (Figure 2, part 2) for this program includes materials for training from the Cornell Cooperative Extension Service, the National Dairy Council, and other appropriate, available resources.[5] Mimeographs on personal development, health and beauty care for teenage girls are being developed, for use in these training sessions. The process (Figure 2, part 3) here stresses the importance of building in satisfying experiences for youth.

There are some discernible patternings which were found to be logical, consistent and in line with the major expected findings. These will be detailed later in this section. It is important at this time to draw several contrasting points from this small sample of urban 4-H programs. First, while the Newark program emphasizes agent-member relationships in a centralized situation, the Indianapolis programs stress decentralization and community control.

Second, volunteer recruitment and a vigorous club program, such as in Indianapolis, is contrasted to a professional-to-professional emphasis with no club work or group organization, as found in New York.

Third, some Indianapolis programs more actively seek financial support and resources from outside the program, while others, for example Baltimore City, encourage the individual to develop personal resources of fund raising.

Joseph C. Brownell (1971) "found many instances where individual agents were making a strong effort to provide special and innovative programs for urban youth." This was one of the most consistent findings of the data collection. Certainly the 4-H urban youth worker must take such a finding into account as he or she begins to develop an educational program.

Mr. Brownell (1971) also notes a word of caution to these youth agents, "many of the programs were excellent but reflected the local conditions so strongly that transposing them to another situation would be almost impossible." Transposing them directly, it should be added, would seem virtually impossible; however, every good idea can be applicable to another similar situation with a little adaptation and perhaps some improvement.

Survey of Other Youth Serving Agencies

Many organizations for youth were initiated in the United States during the days of industrialization and the transition toward urban living. Many of these groups have merged or disbanded since then but four of the organizations - the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, Boy Scouts of America and the

Girl Scouts of the United States - have survived and have been recognized as providing valuable activities for leisure time. The broad metropolitan base of these agencies provides an interesting contrast to the rural-orientation of 4-H programs. The common characteristics of these diverse agencies are their concentration on the need of constructive activities for youth and their provision of a program combining recreation with some set of social value (Coyle, 1948:10).

Discussion in this section will concentrate on each agency, its purpose and the general process of operations as it developed historically. Some implications for Extension's urban youth work will be drawn from these agencies which function within a similar environment (see Figure 2).

Young Men's Christian Association

The purpose of the YMCA is to advance "social education, leadership and citizenship training, and the welfare of the community; to promote health and physical fitness; to assist men and boys in finding and organizing clean and refreshing social life and recreation; to encourage study of religion and the application of Christian ideals to the rebuilding of a better society; to promote racial and religious tolerance and world peace" (Chambers, 1941:27). Within this philosophic framework, social service projects have been an integral part of this agency's program since the 1850's when the Association began.

Closely related to the religious work and prayer meetings conducted in the early days of this organization was an agenda of activities intended to aid the young men from the country in adjusting to life in the strange new city. The process (as outlined in Figure 2, p.33) of

operations utilized by the Association was strongly service oriented. Lists for employment and housing compiled by the group members, distribution of coal, food, and clothing, care of the sick and distressed, organizing drug distribution centers, conducting lectures and courses and providing community reading rooms and libraries were all a part of the early work.

By 1856, the YMCA had begun to broaden its program base and had opened the first Association gymnasium in Brooklyn. By 1869, the recreation program had begun to attract boys to the spiritual life (Hopkins, 1951:29-32,245). The YMCA was the home of both basketball and volleyball; these indoor ballgames were invented to diversify the physical education program and to maintain involvement of youth (Hopkins, 1951:261,263).

Between 1919 and 1926 the Association began development of an extra-curricular program for high school boys - the Hi-Y program - which has operated as a character building, leadership development and social service organization ever since (Penna. YMCA, 1950:96,105).

The agency has been able to use its building facilities to house a variety of activities. In Pennsylvania, the YMCA and the Neighborhood Youth Corps cooperated on an outreach program in conservation (NYC - YMCA, 1968). The YMCA served as the personnel and counseling headquarters for the youth working in the corps.

The transitions in program that have occurred in over one hundred years of YMCA activity attest to its flexibility and responsiveness to the needs of young people. Not an "educational institution" in the strictest sense, the Young Men's Christian Association provides a rich resource of educational opportunities for young men in their career programs (such as the Neighborhood Youth Corps training), their

recreational programs and the Hi-Y club organization. The YMCA is not interested only in providing educational information but dedicated to the utilization of education.

The leadership for such informally structured education is expectantly more interpersonal and more progressive by Riessman's definition. As we have indicated from earlier chapters, leaders are most accepted who are perceived by youth as being respectful, concerned and competent. Underlying the atmosphere and success of the entire program is the leadership type employed.

Effectiveness of the 4-H program of Newark has reinforced the premise that adoption of successful program models can work in the urban expansion of the Cooperative Extension Service. Providing a place for youth to go and having facilities for activities and meetings easily accessible is a definite advantage to the overall acceptance and development of the 4-H program. "The Newark experience indicates the need for having in urban inner city 4-H work some kind of a suitable Center for office and meeting facilities apart from homes which are generally very inadequate for group work, and apart from any established institution or agency which might tend to limit the identity of the project" (Niederfrank, et al., 1972:58).

Young Women's Christian Association

Organized with much the same purpose as the Men's Association, the YWCA has closely followed the development and program direction of the YMCA. Because of the limited opportunities for women outside the home in the late 1800's and early 1900's, women were attracted to the intent and purpose of the YWCA, i.e. to "advance the physical, social,

intellectual, moral, and spiritual interests of young women" (Chambers, 1941:28).

The Women's Association operates most of its chapter activities from a central building and develops its programs in relation to the needs of society particularly those of women and girls, and the corporate purpose of the organization (Sims, 1950:98). The Association responded to this societal input with opportunities for leadership development, courses in career development and resources for personal development through the arts and recreation programs.

A Tri-Hi-Y club program for high school girls and a Canteen program were initiated during the Second World War by the YWCA. The center, operated solely by the YWCA, or in conjunction with the YMCA, or with several youth serving agencies, was easily available to high schools, named, decorated and managed by boys and girls themselves - their own place to play games, or dance to the juke box (Sims, 1950: 21).

The idea of a Canteen was realized during W.W. II because of the need for young men and women to have a socially acceptable place for dating. The involvement of the youth in the process of running the center is an element of the program that has been discussed previously, as being an important component in program development.

The program model of the Women's Association is so similar to the Men's that several comments can simply be reiterated here in respect to leadership types and educational validity. Strong and committed leadership that is dedicated to the educational development of young women will be expected for this organization.

Boy Scouts of America

The Boy Scout movement is also a character building organization, designed to teach its members to "live by living" (Pendry and Harshorne, 1935:20). Sir Robert Baden-Powell adapted the Scouting program for boys from a survival training program used in the British Army. Brought to the United States in 1910 the program emphasizes development through earning of badges and higher rank.

BOY POWER '76 is a Boy Scout campaign for involving a "representative one-third of all American boys in Scouting by 1976" (Reed, 1970: 2). Chief Scout Executive Alden G. Barker says of Scouting's inner city program, "The future is irrevocably linked to our ability to serve the needs of the people of the ghetto. Scouting itself cannot solve all the problems of the disadvantaged, but what it can do, it will" (McMorris, 1971:6). The plan is to broaden its membership from basically middle-class white boys to include, by the end of the 1970's, a pluralistic male population, and girls in some of the older clubs.

Baltimore City Scouts have found one method that works in introducing and stabilizing Scouts in the metro-core. In reorganizing their club program, Baltimore City Council sought and found an Executive who would live in the target community. In three years time, the Executive had so improved the quality of the program that camp enrollment in the neighborhood had increased 116 percent.

Some feedback from this approach (as in Figure 2, p. 33) indicates that: the number of contacts between the Executive and the Scouting groups has increased; the accessibility of the Executive has increased; the Executive's home has become the convenient place for meeting in the community to discuss community problems (Stafford, 1971:62-63).

Community involvement and volunteer leadership are two basic building blocks of Boy Scouting in the inner city (Reed, 1970:2-4); the importance of this element in successful program development has been emphasized in the discussion of literary findings and the Indianapolis and the Newark 4-H programs. The leadership structure of Scouting is most similar to the Indiana plan of organizing area leaders and associations in neighborhoods. The proximity of the program leader and the community enhances the growth of a symbiotic relationship called "community involvement" and "strong leadership base."

Girl Scouts of the United States

In 1912, Juliet Low came home to Savannah, Georgia, with an exciting new idea for girls - Scouting. In England, Boy Scouting had proven so popular, girls were starting to join. Lord Baden-Powell decided to organize a separate program for girls and named them Girl Guides. Personal preparedness and self-reliance, development of leadership qualities, and interpersonal skills are the broad objectives of this program.

The program process (see Figure 2, part 3) is designed to bring girls a program which will help them become well-balanced persons and active, involved citizens of their community through practical information about homemaking, nature, outdoor living, sports and games, music and dancing, literature and dramatics, health and safety, arts and crafts, community life, and international friendship (Chambers, 1941:24).

Club activities, camping activities, camping and badge earning by demonstrating levels of competency in a particular area of interest

are approaches similar to those used in 4-H programs to teach self-reliance and personal-interpersonal development. While these are a part of the traditional 4-H work, they have been adapted, with some modifications in the Baltimore City 4-H program and the experimental model developed in Arkansas.

Summary

The methods of operation used by these four youth serving agencies are operant and useful for the ongoing 4-H urban youth educational programs. The community center with planned activities and recreational facilities; program work with planned achievement opportunities; and activities and projects which are relevant to and involve youth should be considered reliable components of successful metropolitan programming.

The analytical model (Figure 2, p. 33) used for the Survey of 4-H Programs and Other Youth Serving Agencies included the four major components of the more elaborate Systems Approach model (Figure 1, p. 28), i.e. input, process, output, and feedback, utilized for the Survey of Literature. It is possible, therefore, to come to some general agreement on findings from this similar investigation of materials. In fact, some logical, consistent patternings were discernible from the data, which support the major expected findings spelled out in the earlier chapters.

The importance of community support was restated in almost every case, whether 4-H or other youth serving agencies were analyzed, with many different advantages being cited. This seems to be the distinct finding of the exploratory study. Concern for and evidence of

responses to the needs and expressed desires of the youthful clientele was also supported in all investigations of 4-H and other youth serving agencies. There was less support for the remaining statements of expressed findings; however, the importance of leadership types and the influence of personality was a question not asked, but found pervasive within the context of urban youth programming for all agencies.

FOOTNOTES

1. The author is aware that there are other models of the Systems Approach under development and in operation. Some of these are simplified versions of the paradigm included here; others are more complex.

2. This is not meant to imply that the Cooperative Extension Service has fully implemented this recognition. Obviously there are varying degrees of implementation of a recognized need just as there are varying degrees of recognition of the importance of community involvement. There does appear to be support for obtaining community involvement as a prerequisite for successful urban programming in the articles listed in the text.

3. Community participation in program development is a volatile concept, as some case studies of five Community Action Programs (CAP) in the San Francisco Bay area have confirmed. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 authorized the creation of CAP, in Title II-A, Section 202, which were to be developed, conducted and administered with the "maximum feasible participation" of residents of the areas and members of the groups served. Controversy over the degree of power and the amount of control that was to be allowed in the community grew to various levels in the five communities observed. The main issue, in respect to program development, was centralization of power in CAP with advisory function delegated to the target area organization vs. decentralization of power, with planning, policy making, and administrative authority vesting in the target area organization (Kramer, 1969:1).

   The conclusion of the study was that, (1) decentralization produced two rival centers of power, (2) the target area organizations gradually moved from advisory groups to win much broader authority, (3) the tendency was, however, to increase autonomy rather than become a broadly representative body responsible to the citywide CAP organization, (4) many of the associations were finally consumed by internal factional disputes, with middle-class persons pushing out the low-income members (Ibid:261).

   Some caution must be given to these possibilities as Extension moves into the area of developing community organizations. Decisions must be made and policy developed to prevent low-income participant fall out and to prevent organizational ineptness.

4. For further information on any of the materials from Maryland, contact the Baltimore Extension Service, Room #209, U.S. Courthouse, Calvert and Fayette Streets, Baltimore, Maryland, 21202.

5. Exemplary materials from this program that were to be sent for augmentation of this section have not been received.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The stated problem was to determine the process of planning a program that would be responsive to the developmental needs of urban youth.

As an increasingly greater percentage of the population comes under the umbrella of the new "metropolitan age," changes must be made in the education for the future generation. 4-H as a traditionally farm oriented, educational program with rural membership has had to make adjustments to meet the demands of today's youth who seem to be more cosmopolitan and diversified in talents, abilities, and interests than their counterparts of previous decades.

The assumption was made that there are certain identifiable factors which are more highly indicative of successful learning experiences than other equally identifiable factors. Derived from a theoretical base, the following major expected findings were anticipated:

(1) A successful program has strong community support. Substantiation would be the degree to which parents, businesses and service clubs are involved with the youth in program planning, leadership roles, and implementation of the program.

(2) A successful program is responsive to differences of attitude and culture of the participants. Evidence of this concern is observed by examining the variety of projects and activities offered and taken.

(3) A successful program includes support for the volunteer leadership, both teen and adult through supervision and training. This is confirmed by the assistance programs and methods that are built into the system.

(4) A successful program shows growth in numbers, and monetary support over the last few years. Quality is often reflected in increases in participation and money.

(5) A successful program shows changes in the lives of its participants individually and as a group and in the community.

Three areas of investigation were followed in exploration of these anticipated findings. Information was gathered through a survey of selected literature on programming and youth groups, a survey of four on-going urban 4-H groups and a survey of methods used by four other youth serving agencies.

The Systems Approach (Figure 1, p. 28), an evaluation framework in which the function of developing a program is looked at in four major categories, was used to synthesize the literary material and to suggest a methodology for establishing an organized approach to urban work. The major categories are the input and initiative evaluation, process and formative evaluation, and output with summative evaluation; finally feedback into the system. The survey of literature revealed a need for more extensive and rigorous documentation of methods and approaches in program development for the identified audience of urban youth.

A Compendium of the Systems Approach model (Figure 2, p. 33) was used to evaluate four 4-H educational programs. Youth agents in five metropolitan centers were contacted by mail for printed materials regarding their program. Three responded; one other was interviewed by telephone, and one did not respond.

This latter model (Figure 2) was used also to examine the programs of the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Boy Scouts of America, the Girl Scouts of the United States. These four organizations have developed a metropolitan base of operations, and from these groups new perspectives in approach were expected.

One of the most widely supported statements regarding successful urban programming was "involve the community." There are mutual benefits, for the program, the residents and the participants, when there is "grass roots" involvement. The program is more relevant to the needs of the members; it can be responsive to quick changes in need or emergencies. The program that is people oriented is more closely identified with the neighborhood.

The second major expectation, i.e. that a successful program must be responsive to differences of attitude and culture of the participants, drew some controversy in reports gathered from Extension publications. There are administrators who believe the agriculture model is valid for the urban audience; there are others who think that drastic changes must take place. The Newark and Indianapolis programs, for example, suggest the importance of being responsive to new ideas and needs expressed. Responsiveness is in evidence in another way that was not anticipated at the beginning of the study. It is important that the leaders of the program should be sensitive to and committed to the special needs of their audience. Identification with the people, treating the participants with respect and encouragement are consistent with an innovative model.

Support of volunteer leadership is a necessary part of programming when one recognizes that not all the work can be accomplished by one person. The major expected finding that a successful program must have a volunteer system was not fully confirmed. Volunteer leadership, it was found, may not be a necessary component of an operant program, if successful alternatives are utilized. Some units have found some highly feasible alternatives to volunteers. These are more costly

alternatives, however, economically and perhaps socially in line with a "grass roots" program thrust. Work-study students, paraprofessionals, part-time employees are some alternatives reported to a volunteer leadership program. For those program leaders deciding to develop a volunteer program, there is some indication from the literature that the potential for finding persons willing and capable of being volunteer leaders in inner city neighborhoods is quite good.

The training of these volunteers is an important element to a successful program; however, the idea was not strenuously supported in the paper except as it was alluded to through some studies relevant to professionals. The Newark report offers some suggestions on building leadership by starting a person with simple tasks in a helping role. Indianapolis' neighborhood associations provide organized support, both moral and financial, to the youth program in their local community.

Some expertise on what is needed to recruit, train, and support indigenous leaders should be, and to a limited extent has been, developed by the Extension Service or others.

A successful program shows growth in numbers, and monetary support over the years. Money and numbers of people have long been used as indicators of program success. Because membership is freely chosen, if either money or participation, preferable both, increase over time, the program is supposed to be doing well in direct proportion to that increase. Securing resources of money, facilities, supplies and people is a time consuming operation. Recognized as being fundamental to the future growth of youth work and Extension work in general, resource development may be the expansion of the

future. The program can expand itself through a trade off with other agencies. Support for cooperation with agencies of similar intent came from the Extension journals and also from persons in the general education community. The New York City program would exemplify an approach that has been very successful using primarily this one method - linkage with other agencies.

A successful program shows changes in the lives of the participants or the community; a successful program affects change. Verbal comments about any program would indicate some noticable impact. It is difficult however to judge the success of a program by such means. The last expectation of the study, that a successful program will elicit comment regarding significant changes to the individual or the environment, may be too general and too difficult to interpret to be useful. The Newark project did document some of their results; parents credit the program with increasing the self confidence and self respect of the youth, the Project Center is being called for solutions to all kinds of community problems.

Overall, the data included in this study did reveal some discernible patternings which, as has been pointed out, generally support the major expected findings. Moreover, these patternings demonstrate substantive logicality, consistency, and expressiveness with regard to the focus of this paper, i.e. meaningful 4-H urban youth programming.

Implications for Extension

Further study of ways to improve urban programs is indicated. As always, there are many questions left unanswered.

It has been shown that there are some success building factors in programming for urban youth. Implementation of these methods into the appropriate situation would enhance the learning experience of those involved.

First, following the Systems Approach to organize a program is suggested because of its completeness and clarity. Often it is the preliminary steps that are overlooked when planning a new program.

The systems analysis phase of program development is often skimmed over quickly or totally eliminated. To clearly define the problem, the context of the problem, an assessment of the needs of the community and the constraints on those needs plus a concise picture of the target audience means having a complete understanding of the problem and a direction to follow toward a solution.

Second, involve the community in the development of the program. The community members who do participate, it has been stated, have a better self-image, and feel more in control and a part of their society. The youth benefit by the training in citizenship and group interaction; they experience positive political involvement and are exposed to responsive adults who may serve as developmental models.

The program grows with the community support and the activities which are planned and carried out as part of this program will meet the needs and wants of the contributors.

The community as a whole benefits when there is cooperation of resources and a total effort toward creating quality living for all.

Third, Extension Service has been advised by the results of several studies and some surveys (e.g. Soobitsky,1971; Goyen, 1971; and Heasley, 1971. For further discussion refer to pp. 16-18)

that the best qualifications for urban youth work are not in the traditional training areas of agriculture and home economics but in fields such as sociology, recreation and community development. The selection criteria of volunteers and paid staff need to be reexamined so that the best qualified persor can be placed in the metropolitan areas. Training of continuing staff and new personnel must be innovative, creative, and non-traditional.

Fourth, strong leadership must be redefined as being definite, effective and moving, not as any one specific type. The new context, the new demands of the urban milieu, seem to demand a more complex set of leadership qualities that have not been necessary in the composite of an Extension youth agent in the past. This leadership, professional and lay, is so pervasive that it must be considered one of the most influential elements in building a successful program. 4-H is not a typical education model; the leadership of the program must not be the typical "educator" model, perhaps a combination of the traditionalist and the progressivist models will be the most complementary types for this youth program.

Fifth, the need for more research on all levels is imperative. It is apparent that the importance of not only summative evaluation has been neglected, but the value of the initiative and formative evaluation styles (refer to Figure 1, p. 28) has been overlooked as well. The urban program in Extension will not be able to progress with speed and effectiveness unless and until more supportive information is gathered to show the way.

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APPENDIX A

SAMPLE LETTER

Dear Sir:

In the Urban 4-H and Youth Program of the Pennsylvania State Cooperative Extension Service, we are exploring many different approaches to working with urban youth. As part of this project we are requesting information from several urban centers outside the state.

Dr. J. John Harris, III, Urban 4-H and Youth Specialist for Pennsylvania, recommended your program as one to contact. We are most interested in gathering any information you have already prepared on frequently used approaches to program or curriculum development, specifically geared to inner-city clientele. Evaluations would also be helpful. Published studies, written reports or printed material with descriptions of the urban program are what we have in mind.

All we are asking you to do then, is pull this material together and mail it to us. If you feel that someone else could better provide us with this information, please forward the letter to them.

If you have questions or would like clarification, please do not hesitate to call. Thank you for your cooperation in this investigative venture.

Yours very truly,

Susan E. Perkins

Graduate Assistant,
Urban 4-H and Youth Programs

SEP:cba

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE LETTER FOLLOW-UP

Dear Sir:

Early last month, I wrote to you with a request for information on your urban program. I was hoping to hear from you before the summer programs go into high speed.

I am still anxious to include in the Pennsylvania project any information you might have on methods of reaching and involving inner-city youth in 4-H type activities. I would also like to receive it as soon as possible.

Thank you again for your cooperation.

Yours very truly,

Susan E. Perkins

Graduate Assistant
Urban 4-H and Youth Programs

P.S. If you are interested, arrangements can be made for you to receive a copy of this report when it is finished.

SEP:cba

APPENDIX C

How to Make Electric Name Tags
(Carrington, 1973a.)

Electric name tags are a "bright" and unique method of displaying one's name during conferences, club meetings, and social gatherings. The two types described here are easy and fun to construct. They could be used as a preliminary activity in an electric program or simply as something novel to do at a 4-H Club Meeting.

"Bright Lite"
(name tag)

Materials:

1 Penlight battery (AA-Cell)
1 - 1 cell or 2 cell flashlight bulb
2 feet or bell wire
Solder and soldering iron
1 roll of scotch tape
1 penny
2" x 5" - Poster board tag
"Elmer's Glue-All"

Instructions:

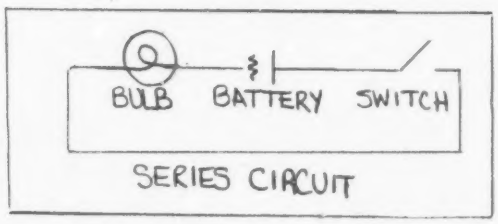
On the 2" x 5" poster board tag, leaving at least 1" of margin on both sides, write your name and other information to be shared.

Punch two small holes, 1" apart, in the right-hand margin. Now in the left-hand margin, punch one "pencil sized" hole. "See Figure A."

A.)

The electrical connections for this name tag are in series. Thus making it relatively simple to connect. "See Figure B."

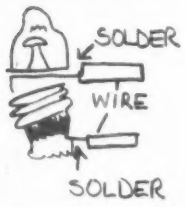
B.)



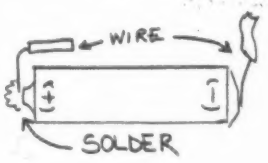
BEST COPY AVAILABLE

To simplify connecting this circuit, I suggest soldering 3" lengths of bell wire to each part in the following manners...

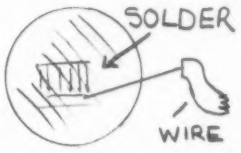
Bulb



Battery

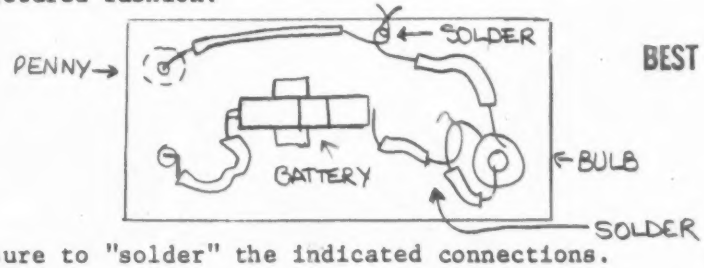


"Penny" Switch



After the above is achieved, scotch tape the battery lengthwise to the back of the name tag. Insert the bulb into the pencil sized hole on the left margin (this hole will have to be widened a little, however, the fit must be "snug"). The wire soldered to the penny is inserted through the front of either hole in the right margin. Elmers glue-all is applied to the back of the penny and it is pressed into place. A wire from the battery is passed through the remaining hole of the right margin (this wire should be stripped of insulation and suspended over the penny). See the "introductory diagram."

All lengths of bell wire attached to the various parts should be stripped of about a half-inch of insulation and connected together in the pictured fashion.



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Be sure to "solder" the indicated connections.

Pressing the bare wire against the penny should cause the bulb to light. If bulb fails to light trace the circuit, make sure connections are secure, test the bulb and battery. Be sure that soldered connections are covered with tape.

A 26" length of string is connected to the top corners of the tag and it can be worn around the neck.